

CHAMBERS'S EDINBURGH JOURNAL

CONDUCTED BY WILLIAM AND ROBERT CHAMBERS, EDITORS OF "CHAMBERS'S INFORMATION FOR THE PEOPLE,"
"CHAMBERS'S EDUCATIONAL COURSE," &c.

NUMBER 568.

SATURDAY, DECEMBER 17, 1842.

PRICE 1½d

TWO OF A TRADE.

THE proverb recognises that two of a trade never agree; but there is an equally general assurance, that opposition or competition in trade is useful to the public. So, although this benefit is only to be obtained by what is sure to make some individuals bad friends, all cry out for, and are eager to support, competition—excepting only in their own particular line of business, where they are always very sensible of its mischievous effects. Hence it is, that while the utility of competition is universally acknowledged as an abstract truth, every mercantile person is seen aiming, in his own practice, at some peculiar source of gain in which he may have no rivals. All are, indeed, monopolists in their hearts, from the great patente of some splendid mechanical invention, down to him who rejoices only in the dealing out of beer in some favoured resort of a thirsty public; or the Hibernian gentleman who stands upon some ancient crossing, which, with his broom, he defends against all deadly.

Of the general force of the maxim as to competition, there can, we believe, be little doubt. The fact is, all things tend to become sleepy and indifferent, when not stirred up by the long pole of rivalry. We have known a respectable stage-coach go on for ages between two adjacent seats of population, thinking it was doing a very fair duty by the public if it went thrice a week at the rate of five miles an hour, under a conductor by no means over-civil to people who wished to be picked up by the way. What was the astonishment of this old, steady, though slow coach, when some lighter and smarter vehicle got up, and vowed that it would convey the lieges thrice a-day at the rate of ten miles an hour, with a coachman of un-suborned civility, and at fares one half of those of the elder coach. Of course, the senior thought its young rival extremely rash and foolish, and openly expressed its general assent to the proposition, that things which run fast never run long. Nevertheless, in the long run, the Old Steady was obliged to open its eyes a little, and put on a third horse at the two hilly stages, and go once a-day, and let down its fares a small thing, just to show that it had every wish to oblige its old friend the public—the coachman, with a super-added guard, being at the same time all smiles to every trumper who wished to be an outside for so much as a couple of miles. So, also, we have known an old respectable provincial newspaper, which thought all was very well if, in its four small pages, printed in an ancient type, by no means particular about expressing the loops of 'e's or even the middles of 'o's, it gave a few choice paragraphs from the London prints, with a fair show of accidents and offences, and a good market and shipping list, not forgetting the births, deaths, and marriages for the old ladies; when, behold, up would start a rival intelligencer of twice the size, and well printed, which gave original leading articles two columns in length, and let the public know how much reason it had to be dissatisfied with everything, and gibbeted some public functionary at least once a-week, all for the same money! The old paper was indignant, looked to established character for support, and was sure of the speedy extinction of the upstart. But yet, somehow, it found it advisable, ere six weeks had gone about, to enlarge its size, and engage "a gentleman of talent from the metropolis" as editor, and look a great deal more smartly after reports of the meetings of guardians and commissioners of police than it had hitherto done: in short, it became quite a different thing. And the upshot in the two cases was, that the town had two rapid frequent-going coaches, and two smart bustling newspapers, one for each side of

the question, where formerly it had only one of each, and that a dozer. Clearly, the slow coach and stupid newspaper would have gone on as they had done for ever, taking the money of the public for very so-so service, if the rivals had not started up, and this just because everybody naturally wishes to do as little for as much gain as possible. All laud, then, to competition, the soul of business—in every case except one's own.

This is the view of the question most acceptable to the public, and which experience hitherto seems, upon the whole, to have justified. Is it to be for a moment hinted before this free and enlightened nation, that there are, or can be, any circumstances (excepting in one's own case) where competition does harm? Why, the new coach may not pay, or both of them may not pay; but what is that to the public? it is only a loss to the parties engaged in the business. Let them run down each other's prices to zero, and even a breakfast-upon-the-road below it; still the public is well served, and that is all that the public needs to care for. And this line of argument may be taken in every case (always excepting the sacred one, one's own), until it shall appear that all monopolies (with that endeared exception) are thoroughly detestable and improper, and not entitled to receive the least countenance from any one who values the public good. Yet it is a little strange that there are some principles in political economy which do not quite square with this reasoning.

It is held in that science that, when any member of the community, not in independent circumstances, either does not labour at all, or labours at something which does not conduce to any useful purpose, all the food which is required for his support is as so much loss to the community. And of this, certainly, no reasonable man can doubt. It is also held, that the more cheaply, or by the less labour, anything desired by the public can be provided to it, it is the better; that, indeed, when anything which can be produced at a certain rate is, by improper methods or arrangements of any kind, provided at a higher rate, or by a greater expenditure of labour than is necessary, there is a loss to the public to the extent of the difference between the two rates or amounts of labour. And it is easy to see how this should be the case; for, supposing the difference in any instance to be exactly the labour of one man, it is evident that, as this man could be employed in producing something else equally gratifying and needful, his being employed superfluously in the other object is a complete waste of his labour. So, also, it is a law in political economy, that when anything required by the public can be produced by the outlay of a certain amount of capital, it is a waste of capital to employ more upon it, seeing that the excess could be directed to other objects, by which it would supply other needs and gratify other tastes of the public; which is also a truth very obvious to the most simple understanding, although perhaps its applications may not be so readily conceded to. Let us see how these principles, or rather varieties of one principle, bear upon some things which we see every day in the world of business.

There is nothing more common than to see a number of shops of one trade clustering together in perhaps one street of a large town—say shoe shops, or hat shops, or grocery shops, or jewellery shops—all eager to outvie each other in the smartness of a set-out in the windows, in splashiness of sign, and attractiveness of promise in advertisements—and each occupied by a master and several assistants, who are perhaps not above half employed. In country towns, we see, in like manner, half a dozen shopkeepers of one class

struggling with each other for the business which might be executed by two or three at most; or rather languidly waiting for their share of that business, and spending two-thirds of their time in an idleness and vacuity absolutely benumbing to their faculties. Generally, in such cases, there is one of the set who, from old standing in the line, from superior capital or energy, gets pretty full employment, and realises tolerable returns; a second usually has a share which keeps his head above water, and hopes to be the first in time; the rest languish in a small way between solvency and insolvency, hardly able to support themselves, or only subsisting upon their little capital, or the funds of their creditors. This is no theoretical picture. We venture to say, there is not any line of retail trade in any seat of population whatever, where more than one half of those engaged in it can be said to thrive, or where one-half the number would not serve the public quite as well; and, after all, realise not more than enough to be a fair remuneration for their time, labour, and capital. In a town known to us, which contains from five to six thousand inhabitants, there were, not long since, fourteen bakers, scarcely any of whom could be considered as prosperous. And no wonder. In consequence of the division of the business amongst so many, all, except one or two who had been long in the trade, had each a very small share, the profits being at the same time reduced to something quite visionary, through the excessive competition. Now, though the public in such circumstances gets the best possible article at the lowest possible price, there remains for consideration, on the other hand, the disadvantage of having perhaps seven or eight out of fourteen tradesmen, who are, to all intents and purposes, burdens upon the community, seeing that their labours are utterly superfluous and unnecessary, while yet they must be in some way supported. Suppose that these supernumeraries were employed in elaborating from the storehouse of nature some other articles really useful to their fellow-creatures, would not the difference of the result be exactly this, that they would be useful, instead of useless and burdensome, members of the commonwealth? In two other towns known to us, situated about ten miles from each other, several bakers keep covered carts, in which they send their bread to families and small dealers in the country around, which is all very right; but will it be believed, that so eager are they for business, that they actually send their carts regularly every day to the other town respectively, to lay off a few loaves which, from favour or importunity, they have been allowed to supply—another baker in a village ten miles from both, also sending a cart daily to each for the same purpose! There is something affecting in such an anxiety for business as this—it reminds one of Burns's poor o'er-laboured wight,

"Who begs a brother of the earth

To give him leave to toil."

Doubtless, as the people in each town could be supplied by their own bakers, the whole cost of the apparatus required for carrying it is so much lost; and the man, horse, and cart, in each instance, employed in that business, might as well be set to carrying loads of sea-sand from one part of the intervening coast to another. Were the man capable of understanding his position in society, he would reckon himself as much a burden on his fellow-creatures as the idle vagrant whom he passes on the road, and be ashamed for himself and horse accordingly. But this apparatus by no means stands alone in its misapplication and inutility. The capital employed in the stone and lime of all superfluous shops, and in all the furnishings and

implements employed there, is as much lost as that which is sunk in the baker's horse and cart. And such must be the case with all capital and labour whatever, which are in the predicament of being over and above what is needed to supply the public in a satisfactory manner with any of the things which it requires.

There are some undertakings of so vast a nature, that they generally become the subject of a combination of means; that is, a joint-stock company. Canals, railways, the supply of water and of gas, are of this nature. The public, ever jealous of monopoly, usually takes measures, through the medium of parliament, for preventing any of these companies from exercising an arbitrary control over charges and regulations, seeing that competition in such affairs is perhaps unattainable. Yet there is always a great eagerness to raise oppositions to such companies, if there be the least appearance of encouragement to do so. A stranger, visiting a large town some day, with nothing in his head but the usual newspaper topics—the Afghan war, the tariff, and the state of the manufacturing districts—is astonished to find the people of this particular place engrossed to an infinitely greater degree by some dreadful war of their own, as to the propriety of setting up an opposition to some joint-stock company by which they have hitherto been supplied with some necessary of life. He adverts to the subject half in joke, hinting, that perhaps there is no need for the proposed opposition; but the inhabitants receive his remarks with a sullen and teeth-clenched fierceness, for which he was totally unprepared—much like a scene in one of Shakespeare's Roman plays.

First Citizen.—We have been too long oppressed by this tyrannical monopoly.

Second Citizen.—Look what dividends they have been getting for the last ten years.

Third Citizen.—A bad article, deficient supply, and no civility.

Owner.—Huzza for the new company—opposition is the soul of business!

And of course the new company is started, which brings down the dividends of the old one, and perhaps advances the public convenience in some degree, but does not insure that the new adventurers are to profit largely by their spirited effort. The fact is, that this is just one of the cases where the exception of evil, which attends the general good of competition, is most apt to befall and be felt severely. The capital of such a concern is mostly spent in what may be comprehensively called apparatus. Where one set of apparatus already existing is sufficient to serve the purpose, to make another set is a complete waste of labour, and consequently of money, just as much so as it would be to have a double set of every article of furniture in one's house, or for a farmer to keep two ploughs to do the work of one. The public says, "But if these people choose to spend their money in that way, it is no business of ours to disapprove of their design, or in any way interfere with it. We cannot be the worse from a particular set of persons laying out a few hundred thousand pounds which they have to spare." Hero lies the great mistake. When money is laid out in needless labour—in that which is to produce no comfort or satisfaction to any one—it is a *loss to all*, because it might have been laid out upon something which would have had exactly the opposite results. The holders of the superfluous stock are so much the poorer by the amount of their unrequired capital, and of course have so much less to spend on their clothiers, shoemakers, bakers, butchers, and all who supply them with the necessaries and enjoyments of life. It is thus that the erroneous expenditure comes to tell upon the whole community. Suppose, for the sake of illustration, that a number of persons with some money in their pockets, but no knowledge of political economy in their heads, were to propose getting up a rival to any existing railway, at an expense of half a million sterling, on the estensive ground, that the first railway charged each passenger sixpence more than was necessary to return five per cent.; and suppose that it was pointed out to the proposers, that there was much need for the employment of their half million in the formation of an improved harbour and pier, where it was likely their money would return a profit not less than that of the existing railway. Assuredly, if they refused to go into the harbour speculation, where there was a need of the public, and a good prospect of remuneration, and went into the railway speculation, where the case was in all respects the reverse, these persons would be acting a very foolish part, and it would only be a just and deserved result, if, while reducing the first railway profits one half, they were to get no more than the other half to themselves. Thus, it is seen that the public interest and that of all individual adventurers are bound up together. The public here remains without the required convenience of its harbour; it only gets a thing which it did not require; or, at the most, it has got rid of a bagatelle overcharge: therefore, being itself unbenefited, or only benefited in a degree quite trifling, it, as a matter of course, withholds reward. And, unquestionably, every misexpenditure of capital by speculators is thus punished—as necessarily so as that every excess in eating or drinking carries with it its own punishment—for laws of providence operate unboundedly in both cases alike. Many will say, "The money spent on the superfluous railway is not altogether lost, for it has given employment to many persons in the construction." But so would the harbour, with the additional advantage, that it would have been use-

ful afterwards, and, in its profits, a means of employing more men. It may be said, "A harbour was not needed, and the money might have lain idle." But there is never any need for money lying idle; and practically, in this country, no money does lie idle. It is distributed, by means of banks and otherwise, amongst those who are able and willing to employ it, and is usually as busy as it can be in all sorts of work. We only adduce a harbour for the sake of illustration: if laid out in any other way in which it produced things useful to the community, it would have been making good our argument quite as well.

These observations will be new, and somewhat startling, to a vast number of persons, but only because there is such an universal ignorance of the very first principles of the science which perhaps most nearly concerns the worldly interests of man. Undreaming of any principle being concerned in the matter, the poor shopkeeper complains of a want of business, and a consequent narrowness of means, which, in the circumstances in which he has placed himself, are as necessary of occurrence as the rise of the wind by a local rarefaction of the atmosphere, or the befalling of darkness after the setting of the sun. It is affecting to see such as he suffer through such causes; but one can scarce behold, without a different feeling superadded, the comparatively affluent and so-called educated classes rushing into large ventures, which a science, which they might now study by the outlay of a few halfpence, would teach them to be, from unalterable decrees of providence itself, not entitled to success.

To recapitulate the whole matter—Competition is useful in as far as it stirs up and sharpens men, and keeps down profits at a moderate level; but it may be carried too far, and it is so when more go into a trade than there is fair occasion for, and when capital is spent on objects which do not tend to gratify an actual and otherwise un supplied need of the public. That these abuses of competition should be avoided, is the interest, not of individuals alone, who suffer primarily and most severely by them, but of the whole community; for it is the concern of all that every brain, every hand, and every pound of money, should be employed to good purpose. A watchful eye may every day see providence assigning its various rewards for the obedience and disobedience paid to these its institutions; the original-minded, inventive, and active man, who addresses himself to new necessities of his kind, being usually rewarded by the best profits, while only poverty befalls those who flock to help the idle; and misexpenditures of capital are visited by shadowy dividends, all the intermediate degrees of merit and error being generally remunerated in proportion. It is not given to all to be inventive, and mistakes unavoidable must be allowed for; but certainly, if mercantile men were acquainted with the principles of the science of industry, they would (all other circumstances being equal) be far less likely to mispend both their labour and capital, and far more likely to realise their favourite objects in life, than they are.

SKETCHES IN NATURAL HISTORY.

ANIMALS CHARACTERISTIC OF THE DIFFERENT QUARTERS OF THE GLOBE.

SECOND ARTICLE.

The most superficial glance at the physical attributes of Asia, is sufficient to show that it is much better fitted for the support of an extensive and varied series of animals than either of the other two continental divisions of the Old World. Extending from the vicinity of the equator to the polar ocean, it is subject to every gradation of temperature. Deeply intersected, especially along its southern coasts, by portions of the ocean, and traversed in almost every direction by mighty rivers; it is amply supplied with moisture: its tropical regions, therefore, possess the two principal conditions for the growth of plants, and exhibit a magnificent exuberance of vegetation, unequalled elsewhere, except in South America; and the amount of animal life is, as usual, proportionate to the means by which it is chiefly sustained. The mighty ridge of the Himalaya, and its numerous subordinate chains, repeat—in the interior of the continent, and on a smaller scale, from their bases, where an almost tropical heat prevails, upwards to their summits, which are shrouded in eternal snow—the successive climatic changes which take place as we recede from the equator to the northern pole; the great table-lands of the central countries, and the steppes of those further to the east, present somewhat peculiar localities; while to the north-west the country becomes assimilated to Europe, and on the south-west to Africa. These and various other transitional or subordinate features in the physical constitution of this continent, which we cannot now particularise, necessarily imply the existence of a mighty host of living creatures of the most varied description, many of which do not occur elsewhere. This is, in fact, the only great division of the globe which can be said to include an arctic and tropical Fauna—inhabited at the one extremity by the white bear, reindeer, and other denizens of the polar circle; and at the opposite extremity by the elephant, lion, and many other animals even more exclusively destined for a tropical life.

Many of the larger and more remarkable quadrupeds, as has been already hinted, occurring in Africa, are likewise found in Asia. The camel and dromedary

are natives of the central countries of this continent, but from having been so long under the influence of man, it is difficult to determine from what precise locality they originated, but in all probability it was from some of the more northern regions, subject at times to a pretty severe temperature. The primitive abodes of the elephant (*Elephas Indicus*) were, doubtless, far from being co-extensive with its present distribution, modified as that has been by human agency; but they must have included most of the tropical parts of the continent, as well as the large islands to the south of it. The Indian rhinoceros is the only species to be noticed as exclusively confined to continental Asia. The latter, also, with several of the adjacent islands, is the sole residence of the graceful but savage and blood-thirsty tiger, which may perhaps be regarded as the animal most characteristic of this division of the globe. Notwithstanding the numbers which are continually falling under the rifles of Anglo-Indian sportsmen, who regard the hunting of this powerful brute as the most adventurous and exciting of all field-sports, and which has the advantage of utility to recommend it, beyond what can be said of most other similar pursuits, the tiger is still so plentiful, as to be no small scourge to many parts of the country, and even to claim some of them as almost exclusively his own. Hindostan may be said to be his cradle, or centre of dominion; and although his range eastwards and westwards is not very extensive, he is found as far north as the banks of the Obi. Many other feline animals occur throughout this vast continent, but the larger, and otherwise more remarkable, kinds are not confined to it, and are not, therefore, so strictly characteristic of its zoology. Not a few peculiar kinds of canine animals occur here. It is, indeed, far from improbable, that it was from that central region of the world, comprehended within the limits of this continent, that the primitive species of the whole of our domesticated races of dogs originated. At all events, there exists there a wild dog called the *Buans* (*Canis primævus*), which is regarded in this light by some. The Thibet mastiff is likewise a remarkable dog, of large size, and singularly gloomy aspect, owing to the great dimensions of its pendulous lips, and the eyebrows forming a fold obliquely over and partially concealing the eyes. Red dogs (*Chrysœus*), of various species range from the southern side of the Himalaya ridge to Ceylon, and from China to the Mediterranean. The jackals, of which there are several kinds, the common, Indian, Syrian, &c., are well-known to the Asiatic traveller by their loud and disagreeable howling in the night. Foxes, properly so called, likewise exist in various peculiar species; such as the *Nepal fox*, the black fox in the northern countries, so prized for its fur, that a perfect skin sells at 400 rubles; the *Himalaya fox* (usually called the *Hill Fox* by Europeans), and the *Syrian fox*, the supposed *shul* of the Hebrews, the only animal of this kind occurring in Palestine, where it greatly injures the vineyards. Possessing many ruminating animals in common with Africa, this quarter of the globe is still particularly rich in species proper to itself: of these only a few can be here referred to. The muskdeer, yielding the substance so well-known in medicine and perfumery, inhabits the lofty and rugged districts extending between Siberia, China, and Thibet. Extreme cold seems essential to the welfare of this singular animal, as it seldom voluntarily descends even to the region of pines, and the young speedily perish if taken to a mild climate. The spotted axis is a kind of counterpart of the European fallow-deer, occurring in considerable plenty in grass jungles near the banks of rivers; and it is a variety of this animal which sportsmen call the hog-deer, and which they most frequently hunt on horseback, or with greyhounds. The *rusus* group of stags is exclusively Asiatic, comprehending several species, most of them of large size; that named *hippophæsus*, or horse-stag, has a long flowing mane, and the *cerus arctostotulus*, erroneously called the elk by sportsmen, inhabits the warmer parts of India. The *Nepal stag* is a stately animal, not unlike our own red-deer, of a yellowish-brown colour, with a large white patch over the rump. The *chickara*, a wild and agile creature, found in the western provinces of Bengal, Behor, and Orissa, is a small antelope with four horns. The *nylghau*, or blue ox, a beautiful animal, as large as a stag, is found in the jungles in the northern parts of India, and seems to be pretty frequent on the confines of Persia. The goats and sheep peculiar to Asia are very numerous: of the former, the most valuable is the *Cashmere* or *Thibet goat*, and one of the rarest and most interesting the *Jemlah goat*, which inhabits the central mountains. The Caucasian goat (*Capra argyrus*) is undoubtedly the source from which all the domesticated varieties are derived. The lofty table-lands and snowy mountains of Middle Asia form the mother country of the true sheep; and Mr. Blyth, who has investigated the subject with more attention than any other modern naturalist, is of opinion, that, besides the numerous species already ascertained to exist there, others will yet be discovered more nearly allied to the domestic races than any at present known, and from which the latter chiefly sprung. Of the bovine animals, or those of the ox tribe, proper to Asia, we can merely name the *arnee*, the *yak* or grunting ox, and the *gayall* or jungle ox.

There can be little doubt that High Asia is the aboriginal region of the horse, as it unquestionably is of all the solid-hoofed animals of the true Asiatic

form. Of these there appear to be at least four species. It thus appears that, for the great majority of our most useful domestic animals, we are indebted to this division of the globe. The brown bear, which likewise occurs in Europe, inhabits a great part of Asia; but the latter has several species not found elsewhere; in particular the Malayan bear, the Thibet bear, and a singular creature called the jungle or labiated bear, a favourite with Indian jugglers, owing to its uncouth appearance. The monkeys, bats, gnawing animals, &c., peculiar to Asia, are very numerous; but even a simple catalogue of the names of these would lead us beyond our present purpose, which must be limited to the indication of a few of the more prominent zoological features.

The only African reptile we have mentioned is the crocodile; here an analogous species occurs, named the Gavial or Gangetic crocodile, which attains a large size, and is remarkable for the cartilaginous prominences surrounding its nostrils, and the length of its muzzle, armed with numerous, nearly equal, teeth.

Many of the birds of Asia are very conspicuous and interesting; and although, upon the whole, inferior in splendour to those of South America (which is unrivalled in this respect), yet not a few can be mentioned of surpassing magnificence. There is no country so rich in gallinaceous birds; the peacock, confessedly the most beautiful of all the feathered race (*facile pulcherrima avium*, is Linnaeus's expression regarding it), consisting of two distinct species; the whole tribe of pheasants, containing many different kinds, scarcely inferior in beauty to the familiarly-known gold and silver pheasants; one of them, the argus pheasant, among the most remarkable of birds; many different species of cock and hen;* the tragopan, beautifully spotted with white on a ground colour of the most gorgeous red, and remarkable for having an erectile horn behind each eye; and, to name no others, the Impeyan pheasant, about the size of a small turkey, whose dorsal plumage reflects the most brilliant tints of gold, copper, sapphire, and emerald—are all natives of Asia. Of the parrot tribe, always among the most notable denizens of the torrid zone, the whole race of paroquets belonging to the genus *Psephotus*, which includes the well-known Alexandrine and Rose-ring species; the scarlet-coloured lorises, and not a few others, appertain exclusively to Asia. The mina-bird, which is very common in India, is celebrated for its power of imitating the human voice. The paradise grackle, allied to the European rose-ousel, is very useful in many Asiatic countries, by destroying the locusts by which they are occasionally devastated. An immense number of woodpeckers, kingfishers, &c., have their exclusive residence in Asia; an adjutant (*Ciconia argus*), the counterpart of the marabout of Africa, stalks about the banks of the great rivers; and the anastomos, storks of similar habits, are its frequent companions. Vultures, eagles, bustards, hornbills, and multitudes of other tribes, are represented in this continent by many peculiar species, which we cannot here enumerate.

The animals of Europe are of smaller size, and less numerous in species, than those of any other great division of the globe. This is partly owing to its inferior dimensions; but chiefly to its being situated entirely within the temperate and frigid zones, and therefore cut off from those influences which produce such a redundancy of life within the tropics. It is the only division of the globe so circumstanced; for that either of the other two northern continents might at all resemble it in this respect, we must suppose them to terminate to the south about the 36th degree of latitude. But even this would leave a wide dissimilarity between them; for land lying in continuity with a tropical region experiences various effects from the latter, which are completely interrupted by the intervention of a sea or other wide extent of water. To compensate for their comparative poverty of native animals, Europeans have borrowed largely from other continents; and a moment's reflection, aided by the information we have already given, will show how few even of our most familiar animals are indigenous to the countries where they now dwell. This view of the matter, however, is merely comparative. Europe is not, of course, destitute of an extensive and proper Fauna, beautifully adapted to the physical circumstances under which it is destined to live. Any peculiar feature in that Fauna can scarcely be expected to occur in the most northern regions; for all the three continents that approximate to the north pole, are there exposed to such a similarity of meteorological influences, that little scope is afforded for a diversity of living creatures. The polar bear, whale, walrus, reindeer, &c., are accordingly common to them all; such, likewise, was thought to be the case with the elk; but recent investigations seem to have established the fact, that the moose of America, and probably the elk of Tartary and Central Asia, are distinct from the European elk; the latter, in that case, will rank among the most conspicuous animals peculiar to this division of the globe. The bison, or aurochs (*Bos primus*), is the most bulky of European animals, and was formerly pretty generally distributed over this continent, but now has its principal resort in the great marshy forests of Lithuania: it seems to be distinct from the Caucasian bison. Of the other ruminants, almost the only species which this continent can claim, are the

fallow-deer, the roebuck, and the ibex. The red-deer, and the chamois of the Alps, although having their principal seat in Europe, pass beyond the Asiatic boundary. A single antelope only ranges within the boundaries of Europe; that is the argus (*Antelope cervus*), indigenous to Poland and Russia. The brown bear (of which the European black bear is only a variety), the wild boar, the wolf, the hedgehog, and many other animals, which occupy a prominent place in European zoology, are almost equally plentiful in the corresponding regions of Asia. Even the wild cat and the lynxes, which are the only representatives of the feline group in this continent, are not peculiar to it. Various kinds of foxes, however, do not seem to range beyond its limits, although, among these canines, it is no easy matter to determine, in many cases, what constitutes a species, and what a variety. The muskdeer of Corsica and Sardinia has been thought by some to be the parent of some of our domestic breeds. The great majority of the known species of mice and rats, the hamsters, two species of martens, numerous weasels, one species of badger, an otter, three kinds of dormouse, a species of flying squirrel, several marmots, and the blind and common mole, are exclusively European. The last-mentioned animal is common in every part of the continent, with the singular exception of Ireland and Greece. Five different kinds of hares and rabbits—one of them (the Irish hare) apparently confined to Ireland, and a species of beaver, thought to be distinct from the American quadruped of that name, may also be mentioned as European; and these may be said to form the most characteristic mammalia of this continent. The entire amount of European quadrupeds does not exceed ninety species.

The total number of birds found in Europe may be estimated at nearly four hundred, but not much exceeding the half of that amount can be considered as exclusively European. A large proportion of these are referable to the Linnaean genera—*Jurus*, *Muscicapa*, *Parus*, and *Sylvia*. There are four species of European vultures, including the bearded griffin, or lammergeyer, which is now considered distinct from that of the Himalaya. The golden eagle, the Grecian eagle (*Falco imperialis* of Temminck), the spotted eagle, the social eagle, and the little eagle, are commonly accounted the European species. The smaller falcons we cannot here enumerate; the Iceland or gyrfalcon, the goshawk, and the kite, are among the most remarkable. Among the most characteristic of the owl tribe, are the snowy owl, the bubow or great horned owl, the barn owl, and the tawny owl. The kingfishers, a numerous and important tribe in warmer regions are here represented by the common kingfisher, one of the most brilliantly-tinted of European birds. Of the true grouse, the largest is the capercaille; and the most remarkable, on account of its restricted geographical distribution, is the red grouse, which does not exist anywhere but in the British Islands; it is, moreover, the only bird peculiar to Great Britain. Several species of rock-grouse (*Pterocles*) occur in Southern Europe, and two or three bustards, one of them (an occasional visitor to Britain) the largest of European birds. These examples, however, must suffice for our present purpose.

"FRIENDSHIP'S OFFERING FOR 1843."

We are happy to observe that this, one of the oldest and most respectfully conducted of "the annuals," continues to make its appearance at the proper time, while nearly all its imitative competitors, after fluttering their short hour, have faded, sunk, and died away. In the handsome and highly embellished volume for the approaching festive season, now lying before us, we think we recognise considerably more talent than public opinion ascribes to annuals in general, our esteemed young friend and contributor Miss Camilla Toulmin being amongst the most earnest and efficient of the corps of writers. New books can only be noticed here when a specimen of them can be given; and in the case of an annual, composed as it is chiefly of novelettes, or tales, this cannot be easily done. We make an effort, however, to justify the praise bestowed upon the "Friendship's Offering," by presenting one of these little narratives in an abridged form.

THE EMIGRANTS IN ENGLAND.

The tale is of the Reign of Terror during the French Revolution, and refers to the family of M. Dubarre, a gentleman who, like many other equally guiltless victims, was, at three hours' notice, dragged to the scaffold, leaving a wife and infant daughter in the midst of a scene of horror and confusion, and exposed to the pangs of poverty.

M. Dubarre had been for one month the mother of an only daughter, and indeed this circumstance had been the sole cause of their recent delay. Little Victorine drew her first breath in the stately mansion of her forefathers, about a dozen miles from Paris, while her anxious father was busily engaged in that city, making stealthy preparations for converting a large portion of his fortune into portable property, and for leaving his native country until

more peaceful times. Alas! alas! this necessary delay was fatal. Notwithstanding the horrors which surrounded her, and the chequered future to which she looked, some gleams of joy sparkled in the face of the young mother, as she looked with pride and love upon her beautiful child, trying to trace its father's lineaments in its baby face, and confidently believing that one other week would place them in a safe haven of protection. She sat thus musing, when a hum of distant voices fell upon her ear—nearer it comes—yet nearer. Presently, a youth, whom she recognises as a faithful servant of her husband, is seen running towards the house—he rejects the more circuitous paths, and springs across some palings, and even tramples down the flowers which grow nearer to the house. He sees his mistress at a window which opens to the lawn, and neglecting all form or ceremony, springs through it. From excessive agitation—from the anguish expressed on his countenance, and the tears which still flowed, he was unable for a few minutes to speak; while his mistress implored him to tell what had happened. He looked round as if to ask if they were alone, and perceiving that Madame Dubarre must have dismissed the child's attendant before he arrived, he begged her to give the unconscious infant into his arms, while she prepared to hear most dreadful news. How he broke to her the awful truth, that her husband was at that moment a mutilated corpse, neither he knew nor could she ever remember; and when she recovered from the swoon into which she had fallen on comprehending the dreadful reality, the sound which met her ears was a wild hooting, in which the hum of distant voices had increased. Francois was bending over her, and his first intreaty was, that she would summon all her strength and courage, and follow him, if not for her own, for her child's sake. The last appeal touched the right chord—he had yet something to live for; and contented at that awful moment with hurried and imperfect explanations, she yielded to the humble advice of Francois. The infuriated mob were at hand; they were coming to ransack the house, perhaps to burn or tear it down; and giving his mistress time to secrete a few jewels about her person, and forbidding her even to take a single attendant—for Francois suspected that there were traitors in the house, and knew not whom to trust—he led her by a by-path from the house, on, on, for miles, to the lonely dwelling of his sister. Then, and not till then, did he draw a paper from his vest, a few hurried and incoherent lines, the last agonising words of his unfortunate master. Francois had rightly judged, that to have delivered that precious letter at first would have unnerved Madame Dubarre, and rendered her still more incapable of instant exertion, than did the rude shock of her affliction. Well might they be hurried and incoherent lines, written even by stealth at the last awful moment, and only by a fortunate accident intrusted to Francois. Breathing to his wife and child the most passionate love, and proportionate agony at his doom, he yet, in that brief epistle, tried to offer some solace or comfort—a vain mockery, which the next line perhaps proclaimed it. Then did he try to explain a very complicated matter—how he had disposed of his property. And he endeavoured to relate, in a few words, his meeting with a young Englishman, in whose hands he had placed it, and who was then returning home. He told how he had been induced to trust him, at a time when few could distinguish friend from foe, half from his ingenuous countenance, and half because he knew that he, too, had a dear wife and only child, who, in free and happy England, were to receive the exiles as dear friends. But, alas! alas! the very words that were most important were totally obliterated by the tears which must have fallen as the letter was closed, and by the wafer which secured it; both causes had combined to render the stranger's name perfectly undistinguishable.

It is not worth while to relate minutely how vain were all Madame Dubarre's endeavours to discover the young Englishman. By degrees hope faded away, and her trusting confidence gave place to the surmise, that her husband must have been the dupe of some sharper; or would not an honest man have sought restitution to the wretched widow? Alas! she did not know that her husband's had been only half confidence, and that he was known to the stranger but by an assumed name.

In those dread days, neither sex nor age was respected; and if the strong animal instinct of self-preservation might not alone have been sufficient to rouse the energies of the bereaved Comtesse de F—, the strong but silent appeal of her helpless infant had power to do so. With the aid of the humble, faithful Francois, now her truest friend, she escaped to England, and the fugitives reached its hospitable shores almost penniless. In this respect the Comtesse resembled hundreds of her unfortunate compatriots; and it will be remembered, that though pensions were granted to many, subscriptions raised for some, and the houses of the wealthy and munificent thrown open to others, by far the greater number honourably supported themselves by imparting that knowledge or those accomplishments which, under far different circumstances, had been acquired for self-gratification, or the adornment of cultivated society. Madame Dubarre was of this number, and adopting that name in preference to retaining a title which seemed a mockery, she entered a second-rate boarding-school, as teacher of French and music, in consideration of which ser-

* It is not a little singular, that our common domestic rices, derived from some of the Asiatic galli, should be absolutely without a special English name!

vice she was to receive a small stipend, a home for herself and the little Victorine, and, as years rolled on, instruction for the latter.

What a change for the guest of princes—the visitor of the Tuilleries! From refinements often carried to a degree of enervating luxuriosness, to homely if not coarse fare, and the dull routine of daily drudgery—from the gorgeous palace or mansion, to the boarded school-room; for the lively sally or brilliant repartee, the twaddle of an antiquated spinster of mediocre mind—for Madame Dubarre was not fortunate in her selection, Miss Smith, the school-mistress, having few ideas beyond the four high walls which bounded her dwelling-house; and, last of all, for the heart love, beneath whose sun her own warm feelings had expanded, she had now at best the courtesies and civilities of a not very exalted station. Still, she was human, and therefore her sorrows were softened by the wonder-working hand of time. She was a Frenchwoman, and therefore inclined to look on the brightest side of things—a wholesome habit, though sometimes sneered at. Thus, as years passed on, and the radiant beauty of the little Victorine expanded—a beauty whose bright intelligence was an earnest of the soul within—the cheek of Madame Dubarre regained in some measure that hue of peace and health which sorrow had driven away. Perhaps in the philosophy of the human mind, there are few things more wonderful than that merciful dispensation by which the heart, bowed and crushed by affliction, does generally rise after awhile from the stunning blow. Especially is it so in youth; for though that may be the season of keenest emotion, and the feelings, cooled by experience and disappointment, may be harder to receive impressions, they are also harder to retain. The difference is almost equal to that of the waxen image, and the graven stone which impresses it. But Madame Dubarre was still young, and though her sorrows were engraven on a heart of a texture more durable than wax, she did, after a while, arouse her drooping energies, the earlier, perhaps, that she felt herself the sole stay and support of a child, around which every tendril of her heart seemed to cling. Thus, by degrees her position became improved, for *home* is a dear word, and most significant; and though the French are said neither to have it nor need it, both the word and its meaning Madame Dubarre learned in England. In a few years she either met with, or sought for, or heard of, many of her compatriots, who were circumstanced like herself. Some were even friends and acquaintances of by-gone years, but all seemed bound together by the tie of misfortune; and by the time Victorine was twelve years old, instead of being the teacher at Miss Smith's establishment, Madame Dubarre had removed to London, and had a home. Yes, for her quiet little lodgings were *home*, small though they were, almost mean, and in an obscure street of the dense metropolis. Like so many of her fellow-sufferers, her days were employed in giving lessons, and she chose her home in a street and in a neighbourhood for several good reasons selected by them.

It certainly was not the fashionable part of the town, yet sufficiently near to be, as the phrase is, within a stone's throw; it was situated among so many great thoroughfares, that all points seemed accessible from it, and was intersected by those secondary streets, where, if commodities be not of the very highest quality, they are certainly to be found at the lowest price. These were recommendations to the poor emigrants, who formed, as it were, a little colony, and who, cemented by the bonds of affection or sympathy, seized gratefully those wrecks of happiness which their stormy trials had yet spared to them. So often have we heard them described, that we feel almost as if we had made one at their little re-unions. Among the kind English friends whom the worth, talents, and misfortunes of Madame Dubarre won for her, was Mrs Mowbray, the wife of one of London's 'princely merchants.' Her only daughter, who was rather younger than Victorine, was instructed by Madame Dubarre in French, music, and painting; and at first, from the idea that the companionship of the little French girl, who, of the two, spoke her own language more fluently than English, would be of service to Caroline Mowbray, Victorine was invited to pass a few weeks in Portman Square; and so gentle, so gifted, so lovable was she, that by degrees they could scarcely do without her—it was almost her home. Madame Dubarre felt grateful; for troubles had worn away that false pride which might once have made her shrink from an obligation, conferred even in the most delicate manner, and rather as if a favour were received than granted.

Years rolled on; Victorine received instruction from Caroline's finishing masters, and both were grown lovely girls. Still, Madame Dubarre's visits, under one pretence or another, continued daily, and sometimes Victorine returned almost like a guest for a week or two to her mother's *home*. How proud the mother was of her child, and how sweet the confidence between them! For so many years they had been all the world to each other, that the awe and reserve which sometimes exists in their relative positions on the younger side, found no place in Victorine's heart; she never dreamt of wilfully concealing a thought or feeling from her mother; and Madame Dubarre, despite all adverse circumstances, preserved that freshness of feeling which remembers the enthusiasm of youth sufficiently to share and understand it, and is the magnet which attracts the young, and by

which they are most surely led. And yet, if each succeeding year had dulled the first keen impression of Madame Dubarre's affliction, if each year had brought her new friends, and rendered her lot more endurable, still, as Victorine approached womanhood, the anxious mother could not but contrast most painfully the lot of her child with those brilliant prospects which, alas! for the fallacy of human thought and expectation, had seemed her birthright.

It should be remarked, that, in consequence of his mercantile speculations, Mr Mowbray was frequently absent from England for several months at a time; and towards the close of one of these periods a strange change crept in—was felt rather than perceived—among the knot of united friends who assembled so frequently in Portman Square. Madame Dubarre was the first to read the riddle that was enacting around her; she saw that George Mowbray, the only and darling son of his parents, was attached to her child, and that, perhaps half unconsciously to Victorine herself, her young and innocent heart was his! Only from one look, but it was a look full of anguish, did she suspect that Mrs Mowbray had made a similar discovery; and she understood, almost intuitively, their relative positions. In the first place, she knew Mr Mowbray had lofty views for his son; that it was even rumoured he would marry into a certain noble family not rich enough to scorn the merchant's princely fortune, and not too proud to receive into its bosom a talented and highly educated commoner. But, in her own mind, she was convinced that, with the ardour and impetuosity of youth, young Mowbray gave not a feather's weight to these considerations, and that he was only awaiting his father's return to England, to implore his consent to receive the orphan exile as his daughter. Equally sure was she that he had not in open and formal words declared his love to Victorine; but while she appreciated conduct that she felt was directed by the purest principles, she sighed to acknowledge that the soul of sympathy has a language of its own, and that hearts are lost and won without much aid from direct matter-of-fact phrases. She suspected that Mrs Mowbray refrained from interference, from a fear that premature measures might fan into a flame the spark that otherwise would burn itself out. Her own plans, however, were decided almost in a moment; for she shrunk involuntarily from the monstrous ingratitude of which she felt she should be guilty to the benefactress of her child, and the kind friend whom she loved almost as a sister, if she allowed Victorine to remain another week under that friend's protecting roof. Accordingly, with true delicacy, she feigned excuses for requiring her daughter's return, for a month or two at least, to the quiet humble home of N— Street, and not at all to her surprise, Mrs Mowbray immediately acceded to her request. The fact was, without choosing to come to an explanation, both parties understood one another.

[Before her return, Mrs Mowbray visited the humble home of Madame Dubarre.] Victorine had retired to her chamber; the two mothers were alone. For a little while both were silent, and when they looked up, both were in tears. There was very little need of explanation, though a great deal may be said in half an hour. From the present and Victorine, however, Madame Dubarre reverted to the past, a subject on which she was not very fond of expatiating, and she related far more minutely than she had ever before done, the circumstances which attended her flight from France. Now was it the turn of Mrs Mowbray to become agitated and confused; but just as she had sunk upon a sofa, apparently overpowered with her emotions, her carriage was announced, and her servants brought the startling intelligence, that Mr Mowbray had just arrived from the Continent, whence he had not been expected for some days to come.

It was the third day from that eventful evening, when a note from Mrs Mowbray, kindly, affectionately, yet strangely worded, was put into the hands of Madame Dubarre, the purport of which was to request she would call on Mr Mowbray the following morning, as he wished to communicate with her on an affair of importance. Has the reader already imagined the sequel? Is he prepared for one of those strange accidents which yet go far towards making us believe there is no such thing as accident in the world? Mr Mowbray was the Englishman to whom, eighteen years before, the Count de P— had intrusted nearly forty thousand pounds' worth of property! When the appointed time at which he expected to receive Victorine's father in England had expired, he made every exertion to discover either him or the heirs of his fortune, but every clue was lost. Not for some years, however, did he use the gold of which he had so strangely become possessed; but at last he embarked it in his mercantile speculations, still resolving, even though expectation from year to year grew fainter, that it should be restored, if possible, to those who were entitled to it. The command of so much actual capital had been of infinite service, had, indeed, proved the foundation of his noble fortune; and convinced, from Mrs Mowbray's recital of Madame Dubarre's sufferings, that she must indeed be the widow of his early acquaintance, he only awaited the proofs which she could give him of the fact, to make ample restoration. The hand-writing and the worn fragment of that sad, but still dearly cherished letter, were quite sufficient for the purpose. This, however, was not all. Who can trace the mysterious windings

of the human mind! Can we do it ourselves—are we not too well satisfied with fair results, without scanning narrowly their combining causes? Perhaps Mr Mowbray, though actuated by feelings of probity, yielded with more reluctance than he had anticipated the tens of thousands he had begun to look on as his own. Perhaps he thought love and forty thousand pounds a fairer portion for his son, than a title with only a chance of the love, and the certainty of far less money. Perhaps that dear son's intreaties had had some weight. Perhaps they would have had weight had Victorine still remained portionless. Who can tell? But it is likeliest that each and all combined to cause his decision—his hearty consent to the union of his son with Victorine."

George Mowbray heard the wondrous tidings; and, as may be supposed, hurried away to the residence of Victorine, and was soon "the happiest man in the world." Yes, she did accept him, and never loved him less, because she had learned to respect his long silence, and to understand that he had avoided her presence, until he could appear before her with his parent's sanction to their union. Except a life-interest of a very few hundreds per annum, it was Madame Dubarre's wish that the whole property should be settled on Victorine; and though the lawyers' settlements delayed the marriage as long as they could, why, even they had an end."

A FEW TRIVIAL NOTES.

[The subjoined notes are reduced from as many papers read before a learned society by the Rev. Professor Gillespie of St Andrews, and are here published with his concurrence.]

THE "LUCK" IMPUTED TO ODD NUMBERS.

THESE is a prepossession, which we may with some confidence pronounce to be universal, that odd numbers, and particularly the number three, are lucky. For this reason, three things are often preferred to any other, when the choice was otherwise a matter of indifference; and this predilection is seen in an especial manner to have operated in matters of superstition:

*Thrice the brindled cat had mewed,
Thrice and once the hedge pig whined.*

In all the ceremonies appropriate to All Hallow Even, we see how conspicuous is the number *three*. There is not a Scottish school-boy who does not suppose that he has a better chance of success at the *third* trial of anything than at any other attempt. An odd number of chickens or ducklings in a flock is held by every old woman to be lucky—as witness the well-known preoccupied verse of a great English author:—

*Here lies good Master Duck,
Whom Samuel Johnson trod on;
If it had lived it had been good luck,
For then we had had an odd one.*

This notion extends back into the days of antiquity. Virgil tells that the gods delight in uneven numbers. Three handfuls of sand cast over a dead body had, with the Romans, all the virtue of a funeral. Into unequal numbers were the flocks in Theocritus divided. Vegetius directs that the breadth of a fosse surrounding a camp should not be less than nine, and not more than seventeen feet, but always an unequal number. The markets at Rome were held every ninth day, and the census was taken every fifth year. Dinner-tables were there three-sided, and the guests congregated in threes. Pythagoras ascribed great virtue to *three*. Amongst his countrymen, the graces and furies were three, and the muses nine. No Grecian city could be safe without an unequal number of gates and temples. Even numbers were certainly not overlooked: the Olympic games, for instance, took place every four years; and their grammar contained a form of the verb for two persons, besides the ordinary singular and plural. But yet it is remarkable how much, amongst this and other ancient nations, with regard to miscellaneous things, odd numbers predominate. The preference could easily be traced into Egyptian and Jewish history; but this is perhaps not necessary.

Whence has arisen this apparently universal prepossession? An answer to this question—the first we are aware of having been attempted—is here offered. "It is confessed on all hands, that gambling is natural to man; it is one of those lines of separation which are said to distinguish him from the brutes, and the lower the state in which we find him, the more fearfully is he addicted to this propensity. What kind of games are naturally adopted by man in the early stages of his social progress? Such, assuredly, as appeal immediately and directly to fortune, and depend the least upon time and skill; such, in fact, as we ourselves, when at school, were most in the habit of using. Now, of all these, I may safely aver that *odds and evens*, or, as the Romans expressed it, *par impar*, was the most common. This method of gambling has the advantage to recommend it to children and to savage man, that it determines the thing at once, and that it may be played at any place, at any time, and with such apparatus as is generally at hand. A few acorns, nuts, marbles, or pence, and you have all that is necessary for setting to work. In this game, has a person calling odds any advantage over him who calls evens? If so, we shall have discovered one reason in nature and original habit why odd numbers should be considered as more lucky than even. In throwing the dice, in pitch-half-penny, and in other games of pure chance, odds has no advantage over evens; because, an even number being always

used, the chances in this case are always equal. But in the game of odds and evens, this is not the case. Suppose that there is an unknown number of marbles in my pocket, and that I take out an *unknown* proportion of that number in my shut hand, and challenge you to say odds or evens, and that you always say odds. The number of marbles in my hand must either be one or more than one. [The learned professor then goes on to explain that, in the first three numbers, 1, 2, 3, there are *two* odd numbers, against *one* even—consequently that the chances in favour of odds are here *as two to one*.] Advance to 4, and you have 2 to 2, but still the evens have no advantage. Take 5, and it is 3 to 2 in favour of odds. Every successive odd number gives a superior chance to the cry of odds, in a constantly diminishing ratio, but still a superiority; and the reason is manifest; the odds and the evens do not start fair—odds takes the precedence, and whilst evens is still diminishing the advantage, it never does, and never can, overtake its predecessor." It is certainly conceivable that, though this principle might not be detected in early times, its results might be observed, and that a superstitious veneration for odd numbers might be the consequence.

HISTORY TRACEABLE IN LANGUAGE.

It is very curious to find in language—in mere words—traces of the moral and political history of mankind, leading to the conclusion, that, supposing no history had ever been written, or that it was entirely lost, some glimpses of past transactions and conditions might be obtained through the medium of philology. When a Scotsman speaks of his *shackle-bone*, he not only conveys an idea of his wrist, but discovers, by the very term made use of, that slavery or vassalage had continued so long in Scotland as to impress itself indelibly on the language of his country. *Kitchen* is a term applied in Scotland and Ireland to that kind of food which serves as a relish to less palatable viands: for example, the barley or oatmeal bread may be *kitchened* by cheese or milk. The word is unknown in this sense in England, from which we may infer that many things, which were dainties in Scotland and Ireland, were common fare in the more favoured land of South Britain. Kitchen, then, is a historical monument of the better feeding of the English, in comparison with the Scotch and Irish, throughout a considerable portion of their existence as nations. An equally good memorial of the conquest of the Anglo-Saxons by the Normans exists in our language. At the time of that event, the animals chiefly tended and preserved for food were the ox and calf, the sow, sheep, and deer. When the ox was at his pasture, under the care of a Saxon serf, he was naturally designated by a Saxon term, ox (bull and bullock are also Saxon, as are cow and kine); but when the animal was killed, and sent piecemeal to table, he was meat for a different class of society, the Norman gentry, and the flesh was accordingly called *beef*, a word of their language. The live animal has since been Saxon, and the flesh Norman, accordingly. So also the sheep was Saxon while alive, but became French or Norman, *mutton* (*mouton*) when dead. The pig ranged the forest under a Saxon herdsman, and was sow or hog accordingly while in life; but no sooner had he been hung up for use, or sent to the table, than he became bacon or pork (French, *bacon* and *pore*), by which terms his flesh has ever since been denominated. The Saxon *deer*, by death and translation of his materials, became in like manner *venison* (French, *venaison*). Even the poor calf is snatched from its Saxon dam and its Saxon keeper, to figure in the shape of good French *veal* on a Norman board. It is remarkable that the horse, ass, fox, wolf, dog, and other animals, not in like manner kept, or in like manner used, have only single names. It will thus be observed that, if we had no written history of the Norman Conquest, we should be able to draw some evidence of the fact from the language alone.

Some words carry us back by their etymology to the earliest age and condition of mankind. *Tempest* (Latin, *temporatus*) is of this character. It is so called from *tempus* (time), because, in a primitive state of society, eras are chiefly marked by the occurrence of great storms, and other such events. Farmers and rural people, generally, will yet be heard dating facts from the great snow-storm, the wet summer, and so forth, of their early days. *Silva*, Latin for a wood, being derived from the Greek *salvo*, to howl, may be considered as a living record of those savage times, ere yet man had gained the supremacy over the wild animals of the forest.

The Romans spoke of so many *head* of men—a phrase which we limit to cattle—thus plainly intimating, through the indestructible testimony of language, the light in which the great mass of human beings was viewed by a nation where the slave population was generally as three to one. The word *virtus* contains within itself the history of civil society. It commences with the period when personal strength and courage are all in all: *virtus* was at first simply military hardihood amongst the Romans. It then passes into that advanced and better regulated state of society, when high moral qualities were esteemed above the mere soldier's praise: *virtus* was then employed to signify those qualities. It afterwards sinks, in the middle ages, into any distinctive and predominating quality whatever. We now speak of one thing being done by virtue, that is, by mere force, of another; and

by *virtus* the descendants of the Romans now imply a taste in pictures and objects of curiosity; while the Scottish peasantry, accustomed to value a rigid economy and good household management, mean by "a virtuous woman" one who carries on the affairs of her house in an active and thrifty manner.

NATURAL CAUSE OF THE ROMAN WAY OF RECKONING THE DAYS OF THE MONTH.

For the benefit of those who are not acquainted with the Roman way of reckoning the days of the month, we may explain that, taking January as an example, the 1st day was called the Kalends, the 5th the Nones, and the 13th the Ides of the month; the days onward from the Kalends being reckoned the 4th from the Nones, the 3d from the Nones, the 2d from the Nones, the Day before the Nones; those onward from the Nones being reckoned in the same manner as the 8th from the Ides, the 7th from the Ides, &c.; while, after the Ides, the reckoning was, the 19th from the Kalends of February, the 18th, and so on. Whence this system of anticipation? It is submitted that it originated in the national habits of the Romans, which mainly referred to war, and to festival-keeping and shows. The Kalends, Nones, and Ides, were the grand days of the public shows, in which the people were so much interested. Eager for this periodical enjoyment, they had it, of course, much in their minds, and it must have been a general feeling amongst them to *long* for the arrival of these periods of the month. Hence would arise a habit of counting the days *onward* to these festivals, as *four* days from the Nones, *three* days from the Nones, and so forth. Every school-boy has a ready illustration of this supposition in his own practice with regard to holidays and vacations. He reckons, *five* weeks from Christmas, *four* weeks from Christmas, *three*, &c.; and afterwards *five* days from Christmas, *four* days from Christmas, *three* days from Christmas, and finally, the *Day before Christmas*, equivalent exactly to the *Pridie Nonas*, or *Idus*, or *Kalendas*, of Roman chronology.

THE MANCHESTER LYCEUMS.

HAVING had occasion, a few weeks since, to pass through Manchester on our way to Edinburgh, we felt a great curiosity to visit the various establishments existing in that town for the improvement and recreation of its operatives. We were stimulated to the inquiry by previous acquaintance with a few startling, almost appalling facts—facts which show an amount of ignorance and vice amongst our poorer brethren by no means flattering to the benevolence or even common policy of the better informed and more affluent classes of the British public. For instance, the cost of maintaining prisoners at the New Bailey (or jail of Manchester), during the last twenty-one years, amounted to upwards of £200,000; and the county rate payable by the township of Salford alone (a suburban portion of Manchester), chiefly for the above purpose, amounted, during the same period, to £2000 a-year. Thus much is contributed for the punishment of crime; but where are the funds raised to prevent it? What provisions have been made for the moral and intellectual improvement of those hard-working masses, whose limited leisure is employed in drunkenness and crime, instead of in those enjoyments which their ignorance denies them? The only answer to these queries will be found in the succeeding account of the three excellent but inadequate and ill-supported Lyceums. Again, from the lately published report of the registrar-general of births, deaths, and marriages, we learn that in Manchester and Salford, taking the average of the two previous years, sixty out of every hundred persons were unable to write their own names! Now, it is fair to presume that a large number of this proportion could not read, and are thus deprived of a most productive source of amusement, to say nothing of instruction. After ten or more hours of hard labour, there is—there must be—a natural craving for relaxation or recreative excitement, which is now, unhappily, satisfied in the public-houses, sometimes to the amount of four hundred and eighty-four visits a day to a single dramshop.* One effect of this vicious mode of spending time and money, may be seen in the rapid increase of crime in Manchester. In the year 1840, no fewer than 13,000 individuals were taken into custody by the Manchester police, out of a population something under a million.

Ful of these facts, we were anxious to learn, from personal inspection, what provisions Manchester possesses for altering and improving this state of things, and, as may be expected, first directed our steps to the "Mechanics' Institute" of Manchester. Former experience of similar establishments, however, induced us not to place much faith in the efficacy of this one for bettering the intellectual condition of the lower classes. Generally speaking, the sort of persons who belong to them render their title a misnomer. From the comparative expensiveness with which they are conducted, their members, instead of mechanics, usually consist of merchants, manufacturers, clerks, shopkeepers, tradesmen, artists, and others of that

* See Extracts from Love's "Hand-Book of Manchester," in No. 333 of this Journal.

grade.* This is true of nearly all the so-called Mechanics' Institutions we have seen; and without meaning the smallest disrespect to that of Manchester, which appears to be admirably conducted after its kind, we may observe, that it is as little adapted for the working men of Manchester as the Royal Society of London. To support its large building, extensive library, salaried officers, and expensive succession of lecturers, the charge to each member is necessarily fixed at the high rate of £1 per annum, a sum quite beyond the means of a Manchester operative, even when in full work.

As a means, therefore, of enlightening the darkness of the sixty out of every hundred of the Manchester people who cannot write, the Mechanics' Institution is next to useless; and we turned our attention to other establishments of a lower grade in point of expensiveness, which are better calculated for that object; namely, to the Lyceums. In going over these humble institutions, we were extremely fortunate in having the company of a gentleman who was mainly instrumental in originating them; and the manner in which he accomplished his object forms an important lesson in what may be called the natural history of benevolence. Feeling that it was not by merely printing circulars and soliciting subscriptions that such institutions are commenced, and that even when formed, it is difficult to induce the persons they are intended to benefit to join them, he went, pencil and paper in hand, into several of the back streets—the haunts of ignorance—and personally solicited the poor, the illiterate, and the vicious. To one who was unable to read and write, he said, "Would you like to learn?" If so, I am providing means for that purpose." And in the event of an affirmative answer, he put down the name of the person addressed. To another who could read, he asked, "Would you wish to be provided with useful and amusing books?" Because, if you would, I am about to collect a library on purpose for your use!" Thus he went from one to another, until, aided by the voluntary contributions of the more wealthy, he obtained a sufficient number of subscribers to commence the undertaking with a prospect of success. This was four years ago; and since that period, three Lyceums have been established, one in Great Ancoats Street, one in Salford, and the third in Chorlton-upon-Medlock, another suburb of Manchester.

Such are the institutions which we set out to visit. The Ancoats Street establishment, situated about half a mile from the Exchange, first occupied our attention. The house is moderately sized, but commodious. It contains a library and news-room on the ground floor, a reading-room above, and several class-rooms; one of which, comprising the entire floor, together with that of an adjoining house, is sufficiently large for occasional use as a lecture-room. The amount expended in the fitting up of the institution, the purchase of books, &c., was about £220, which was contributed by wealthy friends of the institution. For the first year and a half, the number of members averaged 500 and upwards, and the income nearly £250. The library contains about 1500 volumes. The reading and news-rooms are comfortable and cleanly, holding out every inducement in those respects for the frequent visitation of its members. A few persons were busily employed in reading; this was evidently not a mere lounging-place; all were perusing the print before them with eagerness. They just raised their heads on our entrance, to see who the intruders were, and then continued their employment as industriously as if we had not appeared. It appears that thirty-eight newspapers, of different sorts, are supplied periodically for the use of the members.

The small back room used as a library was so filled with applicants for books, that we had some difficulty in entering; and it was as much as the female librarian, assisted by her daughter, could do, to supply the wants of the members, each of whom, however, waited his or her turn with patience and decorum. The average circulation is 450 volumes per week amongst the 300 persons who are entitled to their use. By this instance, we see that, when the working-classes can obtain the privilege of reading, they fail not to avail themselves of it to a large extent.

In an up-stairs room we were introduced to a female writing-class. This consisted of girls and women, some of them from the factories. Nothing can exceed the diligence and attention with which they pursued their lessons. Some of them were of an age which renders it extremely probable that, but for this institution, they would have passed through life without being able to write their own names. This class meets twice a week, and the average attendance is from 32 to 44.

In a large apartment at the top of the house, some forty to fifty men and boys were employed in cyphering, with a degree of order and attention which caused us to wonder how so many persons could be assembled without any especial restraint upon them, and be so silent. The conduct of every member we had seen was unexceptionable; their appearance also denoted that attendance at this institution had engendered in them habits of cleanliness, to which persons of their class are unfortunately too often strangers. Careful washings, combings, and brushings, had evi-

* In the Eighteenth Annual Report of the Manchester Mechanics' Institution now before us, it is shown, that out of 1002 members, only 61 were under the denomination of "mechanics, millwrights, and engineers."

dently taken place between the work hours and that of appearance in their classes, both amongst the male and female members. In reference to the danger which might be apprehended from adults of each sex belonging to the same institution, our informant assured us, that not a single case of any impropriety had come to his knowledge from either of the three establishments since their formation.

The Salford Lyceum, which we next visited, we found to be similar in all respects to that in Ancoats Street, except that it was recently found expedient, on account of the circumstances of some subscribers, to make a weekly, instead of a monthly or quarterly subscription. Here we saw an elocution class, and heard two recitations delivered with very good effect. This institution has had greater difficulties to contend with, and has perhaps been the least successful of the three. Salford possessed a Mechanics' Institution like the Manchester one, too high in its subscription, which excluded newspapers, and made no provision for female education. The Lyceum, when first started, had an undivided field, but the Mechanics' Institution has since altered its plan, so as to resemble more nearly that of the Lyceums. Hence the resources of both are crippled; and although struggles have been made to concentrate the resources of all the establishments by proposing a junction of the more affluent of the Mechanics' Institutions with the Lyceums, the negotiations have in two instances failed. The Chorlton-upon-Medlock Lyceum we had not time to visit, but were informed that it differed in no essential point from the others. Its present house is a large and commodious one, and was at first the most flourishing of the three. During one quarter, there were no fewer than 1300 members. The number, however, has since fallen to between 300 and 400. Attached to the building is a considerable plot of land, upon which gymnastic apparatus is erected. Various games are also permitted during the summer months. The lectures are delivered in the large class-room of the institution, and occasionally in the Chorlton town-hall, which, however, is incapable of accommodating more than 400 persons. The rent charged by the Commissioners of Police is 16s. per night. The institution possesses a large and well-selected library.

Thus the Lyceums, although totally distinct from each other, are connected by identity of design, and sympathy on the part of the conductors. Each is governed by a board of 24 directors, a deputy treasurer, and honorary secretary, who are directors *ex officio*, annually chosen by ballot amongst the members of eighteen years of age, and not less than three quarters of a year's standing. Each Lyceum has its president, vice-president, and treasurer, generally influential residents in the neighbourhood, who are not directors by the constitution, although their presence and counsel is gladly welcomed at the meetings. This regulation was thought desirable, in order to combine complete self-control with some advantage from influential patronage, and to prevent undue interference on occasional questions by those who, from their station, were not likely to take an active part in the regular management of the institution.

The subscription to each Lyceum is two shillings per quarter, without any payment at entrance. In the Ancoats Lyceum, females are admitted at eighteenpence. There are a few honorary subscribers of a guinea and half a guinea, who are allowed some additional privileges.

The advantages to which this very moderate amount of subscription entitles the members, are as follows:-

1. A circulating library of well selected books of history, voyages, travels, biography, the arts and sciences, with a considerable admixture of works of fiction and imagination. The exclusion of the latter from a Mechanics' Library appeared to be neither expedient nor just, although the proportion admitted is even less, in general, than in the subscription libraries supported by the wealthier classes. Novels and poetry are the source of high gratification, as well as even improvement, to the taste and feelings; and those whose occupations are long and exhausting, may find in them agreeable mental excitement, when more serious reading would be distasteful. The library, when adequately supplied with new books, is found to be one of the most attractive parts of the institution, and perhaps the most useful, because affording resources which the workman can enjoy at home and share with his family. Indeed females, it is stated, occasionally take out tickets for their younger brothers, in order that these may attend the classes, and may bring home books for them (the sisters) to peruse. The great difficulty which the directors find, is to supply sufficient novelty. The recent publications of Messrs Chambers, the Novelist Newspaper, and the cheap pamphlet reprints of Smith, Moxon, and others, enable them, however, to some extent to do this, and at a very small outlay. Shillings will now go almost as far in this direction as pounds some years ago.

2. A news-room, supplied with daily and weekly journals of various shades of politics. In the furniture and fitting up, attention has been paid to warmth and comfort. This is essential to compete effectually with the inn tap-room, to which the workman is obliged in most towns to resort to see a newspaper.

Youths under sixteen or seventeen are excluded from the news-room by express by-law, it having been found that it injuriously tempted them away from the class-rooms, and their presence in any num-

ber caused annoyance to the elder members. A distinct room, or else a table in the library, supplied with the lighter periodicals, is appropriated to their use.

The news-rooms, like those frequented by the merchants and other classes in Manchester and most towns, are of course open on the Sunday. It has been thought desirable, however, to restrict the time to about three hours in the evening, from half-past five to half-past nine.

Lectures upon interesting subjects, popularly explained and illustrated, are delivered as nearly as possible once a week. But this, as the funds seldom admit of paid lecturers, depends of course upon procuring the gratuitous services of friends.

Classes meet four or five evenings per week for the instruction of the members, juvenile and adult, in reading, writing, arithmetic, and grammar, without any extra charge. In the Ancoats Lyceum, the onerous duty of conducting the classes has been performed from the commencement by gratuitous teachers. The directors make it a point of duty to visit them frequently; the more attentive pupils are sought out and promoted, the teachers encouraged, and two or three persons appointed to the care of each class, so as to prevent the possibility of any being left without a teacher. In the other Lyceums, a paid teacher is employed, who receives occasional assistance from the directors. This involves expense, but perhaps is the best means of securing punctuality of attendance, and a uniform system of tuition. There are also, I believe, in all the Lyceums, classes for vocal music, elocution, and mechanical and landscape drawing, to which the members have access on payment of an additional subscription.

One of the greatest difficulties in the maintenance of the classes is the want of an efficient system of visitation of the pupils' homes, in order to secure their regular attendance. Without some check of this kind, the younger children frequently absent themselves, and by their consequent low progress, their parents are disappointed, and withdraw them from the institution.

But the Lyceums do not, as we have seen, confine their advantages to males only; arrangements have been made in them from the first for the improved education of females. These classes receive instruction nightly in reading, writing, grammar, sewing, and knitting. The directors have been much indebted for the services of a number of ladies who have superintended this important branch in each institution, and without whose assistance it could not have been undertaken with any satisfaction, or perhaps propriety. In two of the Lyceums, paid female teachers are employed. Separate rooms, and as far as practicable, separate entrances, are provided for the male and female classes. The former assemble and are dismissed half an hour later than the latter. This important feature of female education, which the Lyceums claim as peculiar to themselves, will be more conveniently provided for in buildings which have been projected for two of the Lyceums. It is intended to appropriate a portion of the building exclusively to their use, for day schools and evening classes, with a separate entrance at the side, and only communicating with the library by a door behind the librarian's counter, through which the female members may enter to receive their books.

An Essay and Discussion Society meets weekly or fortnightly in each of the Lyceums. There is no limitation as to subjects, except the good sense of the members themselves, who decide by a majority whether any particular question shall be discussed or not. No evil effects are found to ensue from these discussions, as the subjects of debate always consist of some harmless literary or historical topic. It is a rule worthy of imitation, that the question discussed is never put to the vote. These societies, meeting frequently, to discuss subjects of pressing interest to the man, the workman, and the citizen, tend powerfully to benefit individual members by stimulating the spirit of inquiry and self-improvement; strengthening the powers of thought and expression; banishing prejudice; and promoting universal toleration; whilst they keep alive in the institution the interest of the members, and draw out the abilities of those best qualified to serve the institution as directors, as lecturers, or as teachers. An entrance fee of sixpence, without further payment, is charged to each member. The directors seldom interfere as a body, but individually attend and take part in the discussions as frequently as possible.

Occasional tea-parties, concerts, and soirees, afford to the members of the different Lyceums and their families opportunities of harmless recreation and amusement. These are sometimes conducted by the Easy and Discussion Society, and although charged so low as sixpence a-head, considerable profit is realised, frequently as many as six or seven hundred persons being present. The amusements, which are generally furnished gratuitously by members of the institution and their friends, consist of instrumental music, singing, recitations, and philosophical experiments. In the Chorlton and Salford Lyceums, tea-parties and dancing have been introduced, to the great satisfaction of the members. Great care is, of course, required, and great care is taken, to prevent the intrusion of improper persons. They are almost exclusively confined to members of the institutions. The mothers and elder female relatives of the female members frequently accompany them, bringing with

them also the younger children, who partake in and enjoy the festivities. The amusements are varied by a few glee or recitations, and sometimes by an address from one of the directors, in support of the objects of the institution, and inviting assistance and support. Enjoyment cannot be greater than is exhibited on these occasions, nor could rules of propriety be more strictly adhered to.*

To dilate upon the utility of such establishments as there would be wasting time; whilst to urge their extension, where they do exist, and their establishment in manufacturing places where they do not, too much cannot be advanced. In effecting this object, mere passive charity is useless. The simple contribution of a yearly guinea, or single donation, does but little good. It is the kind of active benevolence brought into operation by the founder of the Manchester Lyceums, which alone can render them of effect. The frequenter of dram-houses and beer-shops will not come to a place of instruction of their own accord; they must be reasoned with, persuaded, enticed. To this end, a kind of mission should be undertaken amongst the habitations of those who dwell in darkness, poverty, and ignorance, and the advantages of moral and intellectual instruction familiarly pointed out to them. No other plan can possibly answer. Legislative enactment may restrict the daily period of work, but at the same time it augments the hours of relaxation, and these are the periods which are in all cases so viciously, while they might be so profitably, occupied. Provision may be made in every factory for the education of the children employed in it: but how is the adult, who is unable to read or write, to be taught? Certainly not by act of parliament, which cannot force instruction upon a man or woman, though it may upon a child. The main remedy, therefore, for all the ignorance which exists amongst our operative manufacturers, is active and unwearied private benevolence.

A WORKING-MAN'S ACCOUNT OF AMERICA.†

WILLIAM THOMSON, an operative wool-spinner of Stonehaven, a small town on the east coast of Scotland, having returned from a visit to the United States, must needs give the world an account of his travels, seeing, as he sagaciously observes, no good reason why he should not write a book as well as his betters. And so here is his book, a modest specimen of typography from the Stonehaven press, and far from discreditable as a literary effort. Tramping through the country to seek employment, sometimes working at a factory, and at other times picking up a job from a farmer, the hero of the piece is enabled to describe matters out of the reach of ordinary tourists, while, on some points he altogether differs from them. Others, for example, complain of the rudeness of the Americans; he is surprised at their politeness. The working-men, he observes, say "Sir" when they address each other, and their whole conduct is marked by self-respect. Employers are equally courteous to those whom they employ; and throughout society, wherever he goes, though known to be an operative, he is uniformly treated as a gentleman. In passing through Glasgow, on his return home, and when looking at a public monument, he is addressed by a girl asking her way—"Man, can ye tell me where about?" &c. Such a piece of barbarism would not have occurred in America, where even one of the poorest class would have premised the question with "Please, Sir." And we take the liberty of asking, why the same species of politeness should not be practised in this country! There is nothing in our institutions or social arrangements, as far as we are aware, to prevent even the most humble classes from using the language of courtesy, if not kindness of manner. It would cost little trouble, and lower no dignity, to use the terms "Sir," "If you please," "I will thank you," "Would you be so obliging," and so on, in the ordinary intercourse of the workshop, which we can see no reason should not be as polished as that of the drawing-room. It is at least tolerably evident, that as long as working-men generally—we say generally, for we are happy in knowing many creditable exceptions—as long as they address each other coarsely or intemperately, and act as if they had a contempt for refinement of manners, they can expect no great courtesy from employers, or be viewed as equals by the better-bred portion of the community.

Gratified as is our operative wool-spinner with the exterior forms of American society, he is shocked with what appears to strike every traveller, high and low, with amazement—the practice, as he terms it, of people taking the law into their own hands, and by which human life in some quarters of the Union is really less protected than it is in Turkey, or India. To punish a white man for homicide, seems scarcely within the compass of the law; such are the many quirks by which those convicted of crime may escape, provided the offence is not repugnant to public opinion. On a late occasion, a judge, in passing sentence of death on a convicted murderer, drily observed, it was the third or fourth time he had performed this unpleasant duty on the same individual. These things

* For the information collected during our gratifying visit to the Lyceums, we are indebted to their indefatigable promoter, Edward Harford, Esq., of whose obliging company we had the benefit.

† A Traveller's Travels in the United States and Canada. By William Thomson, Stonehaven. Edinburgh: Oliver and Boyd. 1852.

astonish our plain Scotch artisan not a little; and some cases of stabbing and shooting that he hears of, impress him with a most unfavourable idea of the constitutional liberty of America. The following account he gives of a bank-mob may appropriately enough conclude the present notice.

A BANK-MOB.

While I was in Cincinnati a very serious bank-mob took place. In order that this case may be understood, I may mention that there were a number of small banking establishments which, although not strictly legal, managed, by 'hook or by crook,' to get a large quantity of their notes into circulation, and as the times grew worse, they fell in value. Such a thing as getting cash for them at par was never heard of in the best of times; and now, as there was some prospect of the State passing an act compelling all to resume specie payments, these establishments got embarrassed, and some of them began to fail in being able to redeem their issues with notes of other banks. Several throughout the state, and in the city, became bankrupt in the most fraudulent manner. The people were roused, and made a run upon them. One morning, the run upon the Miami Exporting Company's Bank was so great, that their funds also ran short. Now, although their notes bore to be payable in specie, the people only demanded the notes of other banks in which they had a little more confidence. However, they stopped about ten o'clock in the morning, and a shout ran through the crowd to mob them. Immediately the window-frames were smashed, the doors broken, and the establishment completely gutted—counters, desks, books, papers, money, &c., being promiscuously hurled to the street, amidst the shouts and execrations of the mob.

When I got to the scene of action, which was at the corners of Main and Third Street, a party of sixteen or eighteen soldiers had taken possession of the ransacked building. The mayor and the marshal of the city attempted to address the mob, but in vain, for they could not be heard. The marshal, a bold, active man, was on horseback, riding through the streets, calling upon all good citizens to disperse, but few such were to be found. They then tried a *ruse*—they rang the city bells to the startling and well-known tune of 'Fire,' but this also failed. The firemen and many of the citizens, with the involuntary movement of well-trained soldiers, started at the word of command, and began to run to their stations.

At this time I was standing on the steps in front of the Old United States' Bank, which was crowded with spectators looking down upon the scene, when I observed one of those little incidents that have turned the fate of greater field-days than this. As the firemen and others were running past, just opposite to where we stood, a fellow got up on a cask or box, at one of the shop doors, where he stood conspicuous, with his thumb at his nose, and his fingers stretched out, thereby intimating, in his way, that a *deceit* was about to be practised on them. The people 'smelled a rat,' and immediately returned to the work of demolition in greatly-increased numbers, and apparently more exasperated, both at the cheat practised on them, and at the sight of the soldiers. They stood at bay for some minutes, moving a little backwards and forwards, evidently preparing for a struggle. The troops had their bayonets fixed and their muskets levelled. There was not more than ten yards between them. The crowd began to throw brick-bats. Two or three of the company fired. The crowd then came forward like a wave of the sea; the company fired a volley, and several of the rioters fell wounded. Such a shout was then raised, all along the crowded streets, and from the spectators on the tops of the houses, as I never heard before; for I had never seen the 'sovereign people' in a rage till now.

By the time the smoke and dust cleared away, and the astonishment of the moment past, there was not a feather of the soldiers' caps to be seen. The authorities ordered them to fall back to the mayor's office, which was immediately in the rear. This was a wise movement; for, I think, if they had remained other five minutes, it would have been doubtful if any of them would have 'shewed their cud' over their pork that night. I believe the mayor had strong doubts whether he had any legal right to shoot the citizens on such an occasion; and no more soldiers appeared that day. It is true, all the *companies* were ordered out, but they paid no attention to this order; in fact, the greater part of them had not time, for they were busy, in the mob, helping to wind up the affairs of the banks; and this they did effectually before night.

After this, the mob had complete possession of the city, and the run upon the banks continued; but they gave them fair play. As long as they were able to redeem their notes they allowed them to go on, but the moment the funds ran short, smash went the windows and doors, and the work of destruction commenced. The bankers fled for their lives. In this way they demolished the inside of five of these 'skin-plaster' manufactories, as they called them, before night.

There were a great number of special constables sworn in, and they came out about two o'clock, each with a handkerchief tied round his hat to distinguish them. They threw themselves in lines across the streets leading to the mobbed parts of the city, allowing everybody to pass away from, but none towards, the disturbed districts; but it would not do. The people broke through; and I do not think the constables cared much. The sympathies of the most respectable citizens were with the people; and I observed many of them, in the streets, rubbing their hands with glee, and laughing, as one after another of these swindling establishments were turned inside out. The mayor was even suspected of not doing all he could, and was tried for it afterwards, but acquitted.

The mob went to work very deliberately, and, after they had everything their own way, with good humour. I was pleased with the spirit of 'fair-play' shown to the Planters' and Mechanics' Banks, which were thought to be weak. The cry to pull them down was frequently raised, but a number of the active rioters defended the premises stoutly, and they continued, through the day,

to redeem their notes. The run upon them was tremendous, but they stood out the storm; and, at night, posted bills, stating that they would open next morning an hour before the usual time.

There were several of those engaged in the riot apprehended throughout the day, some of them with considerable sums of money on them. Everybody had plenty of money that day, such as it was. The very children were running about with handfuls of dollar bills, several of which fell to my share; and I have them yet as trophies, and an evidence of the mode of regulating the currency in the 'Queen City of the West.' There were several other banks in the city, respectable establishments, in which there was plenty of good money and specie, but the mob never made the slightest move towards them. These are examples enough, to give some idea how the Americans execute judgment when they take the law into their own hands."

PERIODICAL LITERATURE OF FRANCE.

REVIEW OF THE TWO WORLDS.

THE gay, susceptible characteristics of the French nation demand, from its popular literature, amusement rather than utility: hence, there is scarcely a publication which issues from the French press that does not contain a proportion of imaginative pieces. Even the daily newspapers are obliged to waft their dry details of fact—of public occurrences and political discussion—upon the wings of fiction; for almost every journal has about a quarter of each page ruled off for the reception of tales, or sketches of character; though sometimes biography, dramatic and musical criticism, &c., are admitted into this department, which is usually called the *Feuilleton*. In fact, many of the most popular novels have been originally published thus, from day to day, to be afterwards reprinted in volumes. In like manner, the magazines and reviews, whose main and avowed objects are of a more grave and sober cast, seem to exist under a pressing necessity for filling some of their pages with the fancies and devices of the novelist; presenting to an English reader the same out-of-place appearance that a tale by Bulwer would have in the Quarterly or Edinburgh Review, or a romance of Ainsworth "continued" in the *Times* newspaper.

The *Revue des Deux Mondes* (or Review of the Two Worlds), a publication resembling, in outward appearance, our own monthly periodicals, but published fortnightly, is no exception to the above-stated rule; an original imaginative article appearing in nearly every number. The rest of its sheets are filled with original contributions to geographical and statistical science, biography, literary criticism, and political discussion. But what should make this periodical interesting to the inhabitants of this side of the channel, is the attention it bestows upon Great Britain; for, in almost every number, our manners, literature, the aspect of our country, our political institutions, or foreign possessions, are honoured with some kind of notice; and, taking the present year down to September, we find that, out of seventeen *hierosoles*, or parts, twelve of them contain articles on those subjects. The first we light upon is entitled "Littérature Anglaise," which, true to French tastes, is a critique, not upon English literature, but upon English romances and novels, many of which do not deserve, in our own estimation, to be classed as literature. Indeed, the only really literary works reviewed or named in the course of the essay, are "Alison's History of Europe," and "Ritson's Posthumous Letters"; but the most curious part of the article is a complaint against the periodical mode of publishing continuous novels, as practised occasionally in England, but daily in France. "These unconnected fragments," proceeds the reviewer, "supersede the old laws of composition—cohesion of parts, unity, and finish. The author only thinks of the 'number' he has got to produce, and of the twenty guineas he is to have for it; the pages which have preceded, and those which have to follow, seldom trouble him. Each successive number must contain a stage effect, a bait for the perusal of its successors. There must be excitement—unnatural incident; the attention of the reader is violently suspended, truthfulness is sacrificed to astonishment, simplicity to improbability; the curtain is lowered at the moment that emotion is excited, when the hero is about to perish, when the heroine is in tears, when the heart of the reader beats with expectation. Miserable literary juggling! How, without connexion, without revision, without conscience, is it possible to write, not great works, but even rational or interesting ones!"

In a succeeding number, a long notice occurs of Sir Walter Scott, in connexion with English romance, and is ably written. "Scotland in 1840" is a statistical account of that country, compiled from our own gazetteers, with many of the proper names mispelt; for example, Mrs. Millar, who introduced the spinning of Holland thread into Paisley, is transformed into "Mrs. Wittar." To a sketchy article, entitled, "A Journey to London," a considerable degree of interest attaches, as giving, in a lively though dippant strain, a foreigner's impressions on the great city. "I had," commences the author, "passed the night at a masked ball. There is nothing so wretched as the day after a ball, and I took a violent determination. I resolved to treat my dullness upon the homeopathic plan; for, some hours after, having had scarcely time to take off my caftans, poignards, and the rest of my Turkish attire, I was on my way to London, the native city of spleen."

Arrived in the Thames, the traveller, by a stretch of imagination somewhat extravagant, compares a part of its banks to Thebes and Babylon. "On the banks of the river I began to distinguish trees, houses crumpling low on the shore, one foot in the water and a hand extended to seize in their transit bales and packages of merchandise; timber-yards with their enormous sheds and skeletons of unfinished ships; also, a forest of colossal chimneys, in the form of towers, pylons, and obelisks, giving to the horizon an Egyptian appearance, suggesting a vague outline of Thebes or Babylon, or an antediluvian city, of enormous objects altogether extraordinary."

Similar ideas of vastness seem to have arisen from a sight of the West India Docks; although some abatement must be made for that exaggerated mode of expression which it is usual to pardon in modern French writers. "The East India Docks," exclaims this journalist, "are something so enormous, so gigantic, that they surpass human proportions! It is the work of Cyclops and Titans. Above the buildings, the warehouses, the wharfs, the water-steps and other heterogeneous structures, you behold a prodigious alley of masts prolonged to infinity; an inextricable labyrinth of rigging, spars, ropes, which surpasses, by the density of their interlacement, the most entangled portions of an American virgin forest!"

The wonder thus excited having in some degree subsided, another source of astonishment presents itself to the tourist. It is Sunday when he lands, and he is greatly surprised "at the solitude and profound silence" which reigned in the parts of the town through which he had occasion to pass. To the denizen of Sabbath-breaking Paris, London on this day appeared like a Necropolis, "one of those cities peopled by the petrified inhabitants read of in Oriental tales. All the shops were closed, not a single human visage appeared at the windows. The few passengers glided by like shadows. This mournful and deserted scene contrasted so forcibly with the notion of animation and bustle which I had formed of London, that I did not recover from my surprise till I remembered that it was Sunday, and London Sundays had already been described to me as the incarnation of inactivity. This day, which is with us—at least amongst the lower classes—a day of rejoicing, of promenading, of festivity, and dancing, is on the other side of the channel passed in the most inconceivable gloom. The taverns are shut on the eve of midnight; the theatres have no performances; the shops hermetically closed; and unless provision is made on the preceding evening, it is difficult to get anything to eat. Life seems to be suspended. All the wheels in London cease to revolve, like those of the chimney-clock when one places a finger on the pendulum. For fear of disturbing its Sabbath solemnity, London does not indulge in a single movement, and scarcely permits itself to respire. On this day, after having heard a sermon from the pastor of the sect to which he belongs, the good Englishman shuts himself up in his house to meditate, and to rejoice before a good coal-fire on the happiness of being at home, and that he is neither a Frenchman nor a Papist. At midnight (!), the charm is broken; the vital principle, impeded for a time, becomes re-animated; the houses re-open; life returns to the immense body so lately fallen into lethargy; it awakens at the call of money-making Monday, and then continues its march."

Such is the difference in the national habits and modes of thought between even such near neighbours as the French and the English, that, by reversing this picture, by stating its converse in every particular, we shall be presented with the impressions of nine Englishmen out of ten who visit Paris. Their astonishment would be drawn from the antitheses of the statements made by this French visitor to London. The English stranger in Paris would exclaim with wonder, "All the shops are open, all the inhabitants are from home, promenading the streets and public gardens. The greatest animation and gaiety prevails; the taverns are filled with guests; and although it is the Sabbath, they actually perform plays in the theatres! This day, which is with us—at least with the majority of us—a day of rest and thanksgiving, is passed in Paris in feasting, dancing, and revelry; and it is not till Monday arrives that the ordinary business of life is resumed." Thus those things which habitual familiarity renders commonplace and unnoticed to a resident, strike the stranger with astonishment from their (to him) extreme singularity. The veriest Cockney will not, however, fail to acknowledge the truth of the remarks contained in our traveller's vivid description of the sooty appearance of the metropolis, caused by that smoky fog which Charles Lamb has designated, from its unequalled density, "the genuine London Particular." The tourist continues:—"One thing which gives to London a most peculiar aspect, besides the breadth of its streets and pavements, and the lowness of its houses, is the uniform black hue which shadows every external object. Nothing can be more doleful and lugubrious; it is a kind of black that has none of those brown and vigorous tints which time has given to the ancient edifices of less northern countries; it is an impalpable and subtle dust, which sticks to everything, penetrates everywhere, and from which there is no defence. A stranger would say, that all the monuments had been sprinkled with black-lead: the immense quantity of coal which is consumed in London for fuel, is one of the principal causes of the general mourning worn by the chief

edifices—the oldest of which have literally the appearance of having been covered with blacking. This effect is especially visible in the statues. Those of the Duke of Bedford, the Duke of York, which is placed on the summit of a high column, and of George III., on horseback, resemble negroes or chimney-sweepers, being made equally black by the quintessence of coal-dust, which is always falling from a London sky.* The prison of Newgate, with its dark niches and rusticated masonry, the old church of St Sepulchre, and several Gothic chapels, the names of which I do not remember, seem to have been built of black granite, rather than to have grown dingy by years. I have never contemplated that mournful and opaque tint, which lends to the edifices, half hidden in fog, the appearance of enormous funeral canopies, without finding sufficient explanation for the spleen which tradition gives to the English."

The general tone and character of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* present a most favourable specimen of French periodical literature, from its comparative moderation in the discussion of political subjects, and from the talent with which the scientific and historical departments are filled. We shall, from time to time, present our readers with other extracts from its pages.

ENGLISH AND ARABIAN HORSES.

THE following anecdote, illustrative of the enervating effects of the artificial mode of training horses practised in this country, is related in a recently published pamphlet by M. Hamon, who passed eight years in Egypt as chief veterinary surgeon to Mehemet Ali.

While Kourchid Pasha was governor of Nejd—a country of Central Arabia, which produces horses held in high estimation—some Englishmen, who possessed several thorough-bred British horses, challenged the Bedouins to undertake a race with them. The Arabs accepted the challenge, and the English demanded forty days to "train," they said, their horses for the event. The Arabs, whose steeds are always in readiness, could not understand why it was necessary to train horses to run, smiled at the condition, but still consented to it; and at the end of the period agreed upon, arrived at the place of meeting. "Choose yourselves," said the Bedouins, "from amongst our stock which of our horses shall run against yours." The choice was made, and the Arabs inquired how many days the horses were to run. The Europeans stared with astonishment, and answered, "One hour will suffice." The men of Nejd refused so insignificant a struggle. "And is it for the race of an hour," they cried, "that you have required forty days' preparation? This gives us a most unfavourable notion of your breed of horses, which you say sprung from ours."

"Such is the custom of our country," replied the Englishmen; "but after the training they have had, our racers will distance yours as they have beaten others in Europe."

Again the Bedouins smiled, for in the meantime two small sickly-looking men, arrived in top-boots, leading two immense moving machines, but lean withal, which they soon discovered were horses. These were enveloped in cloth, from the tip of the nose to the hoofs, the eyes only remaining uncovered. The Arabs, who had hitherto never seen an English horse, inquired what they were going to do with those great beasts. "Run them against yours," was the reply; "to prove to your tribe that the racers of Great Britain are the first in the world."

The Arabs, taking this answer as a joke, retired, believing that the strangers intended to hoax them. The latter protested, insisted, and, at length, succeeded in persuading the Bedouins to return. Kourchid Pasha, who was present, also spoke to them, and by his advice they consented to run their horses. The sight of the two small thin jockies strangely excited the curiosity of the natives, and they begged their antagonists to tell them in what remote corner of the earth they found such extraordinary beings. "They are the jockies," answered the Britons; "men whose business is in our country to ride race-horses, and who also undergo a severe training."

The surprise of the Arabs now reached its height; and but for the assurances of Kourchid Pasha, they would have finally declined to oppose their men and horses to creatures whom they designated by the title of *Mascara*.†

At length, while an attenuated jockey leaped into the saddle, a tall and vigorous Bedouin mounted a native horse of ordinary points, which gamboiled round the tent inhabited by his family. The wife and children came out to caress the animal, which, by its movements, seemed to promise them victory. It is decided that the race shall last for three hours. At a given signal, the horses started together. During the first half hour, the English kept in advance of their adversaries; but soon the Nejids overtook, passed them, and the Europeans arrived at the goal a considerable time after the Arabs. The English horses, breathless, remained exhausted on the spot, showing every symptom of distress. The Arabian steeds, on the contrary, were

active, impatient; they pawed the ground with their hoofs, neighing loudly, as if inviting their adversaries to another trial.

Perceiving the English horses so much distressed, the men of Nejd approached the strangers, who were occupied in rubbing down their steeds, and inquired how it was that a race of three hours so completely exhausted a European horse. "We train them," was the reply. "How do you mean?" continued the Bedouin. "Why, during two or three months, the horses are allowed to live in idleness in a large paddock, having no work to do." "And this—to train the horse for a long time before the race, and to abandon him to idleness for several months after it"—observed the Arab, "signifies that your horses bred in an artificial state are but of little use to their owners." In taking their departure, the Bedouins exclaimed, "Allah preserve us from such customs!"

all consciousness of the reality which surrounds them is lost. The disposition to reverie is very pernicious to intellectual health. Many habituate themselves to dream with their eyes open, without the senses being literally shut; they appear to be insensible to the impression of objects external to themselves. This condition of mind borders closely upon the confines of insanity. If the imagination be thus permitted to obtain so predominant an influence over the other faculties of the mind, some particular notion will fix itself upon the fancy; all other intellectual gratifications will be rejected; the mind, in weariness or leisure, recurs constantly to the favourite conceptions, and feasts on the luscious falsehood, whenever she is offended by the bitterness of the truth. By degrees the reign of fancy is confirmed; she grows first imperious, and in time despotic; the fictions begin to operate as realities, false opinions fasten upon the mind, and life passes in dreams of rapture or anguish.—*Winstow's "Health of Body and Mind."*

RUTHVEN'S PLAN FOR PROPELLING STEAM-VESSELS.

One of the greatest drawbacks to steam-navigation is the contrivance by which steam-boats are propelled. Paddle-wheels, besides destroying the "clear run" of a vessel, impair the speed by their bulk, and in rough weather destroy the trim or even motion of the boat, by being either lifted quite out of the water on one side, or sinking too deeply into it on the other. Their liability to accident is another serious objection. For these reasons, many attempts have been made to supersede them, but hitherto without effect; and it was with no little expectation and curiosity that we attended a lecture by Mr. Lees, lately delivered in Edinburgh, explanatory of a fresh invention for the above much desired purpose. The new plan is simply an adaptation of the principle of Dr Barker's mill to the purposes of locomotion. The Messrs. Ruthven propose to supply the place of paddle-wheels with two large nozzles or tubes, through which they cause water to rush with great force, so as to create a motion opposite to the direction in which the column of water falls into the sea. The water is to be supplied by means of several small ducts opening in the head of the vessel just below water-mark. The engine raises it to the two tubes, by which it exits by a contrivance similar to the Archimedes screw.

The advantages of this invention, as pointed out by the lecturer, are, first, the relief of the ship from unwieldy paddle-boxes; second, that the engine need never cease working even when it is requisite to stop the vessel, for, by turning the nozzles (by means of machinery upon deck) downwards, the locomotive power is directed vertically instead of horizontally, and the motion ceases, or can be modified at pleasure, in proportion as the tubes are made to slope towards the sea; third, should the rudder be lost, the vessel may be steered without one, by stopping or lessening the supply of power on either side, as a row boat is guided; fourth, the disagreeable motion caused by paddle-wheels will of course be obviated, the action will not be obtained by impulses, but in one regular stream, as it were, from the violent issue of water from the tubes. All experiments with models being, to a certain extent, delusive, we forbear offering any opinion on the practicability of this ingenious invention.

A PLEASING IMPROVEMENT.

Mr. J. C. Loudon, in a letter to the London journals, calls attention to a highly commendable act on the part of the Commissioners of Woods and Forests; that of naming the collection of trees and shrubs which were planted a few years ago in Kensington Gardens and St. James's Park:—"In addition to the scientific name, the English name is given, the natural order to which the tree or shrub belongs, and the year of its introduction into Britain. Thus, in the case of the sugar maple, we have the words below painted in white on a black ground—

Acer saccharinum L.

The sugar maple.

An aceraceous tree.

A native of North America.

Introduced in 1735.'

I need not enlarge on the entertainment and instruction that this enlightened and liberal act on the part of the Commissioners of Woods and Forests will afford to the public frequenting these gardens, or even to those who, living remote from the metropolis, can visit them occasionally. Suffice it to say, that it will create a new sense in thousands of persons, and enable them to derive a degree of enjoyment from trees and shrubs which they had no idea of before. It will enable the citizen or extensive proprietor, intending to plant, to make choice of those trees and shrubs which he thinks most ornamental, or most likely to answer his purpose; and thus, by improving the appearance of individual estates, it will contribute to increase the beauty and variety of the woody scenery of the whole country."

BENEVOLENT SAYING.

The celebrated saying of the Emperor Titus, "I have lost a day," when he had suffered one to pass without some act of charity, has been often quoted as a proof of his exalted character. Dr Granville, in his work on the Russian empire, relates the following expression of the empress mother, which is not less remarkable than that of Titus, and appears indeed to have arisen from the moving principle of her actions: "Notre séjour sur la terre est si court, qu'on doit regretter le temps perdu sans faire du bien."—Our sojourn on earth is so short, that we ought to regret the time which is lost without the performance of some good."—*Flowers of Anecdote.*

LOWON: Published, with permission of the proprietors, by W. S. Orr, Paternoster Row.

Printed by Bradbury and Evans, Whitefriars.

* The French critic on a London climate is not perhaps aware that these statuary, being composed of bronze, would, whatever plumb, present a dark-coloured appearance.

† *Mascara* is the western province of Algiers, the diminutive name of whose inhabitants has passed into an Eastern proverb.

CASLE BUILDING.

The habit of what in common parlance is called "building castles in the air," has a most pernicious influence on the health of the mind. There is a legitimate exercise of the imaginative faculty which is advantageous to the understanding, and to this no reasonable objection can be urged; but when the fancy is allowed "to body forth the forms of things unknown," without being under proper discipline, much evil will result. Individuals endowed with an unhealthy expansion of the imagination create a world within themselves, in which the mind revels until